

Tag Clouds for Displaying Semantics: The Case of Filmscripts

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Abstract

We relate tag clouds to other forms of visualization, including planar or reduced dimensionality mapping, and Kohonen self-organizing maps. Using a modified tag cloud visualization, we incorporate other information into it, including text sequence and most pertinent words. Our notion of word pertinence goes beyond just word frequency and instead takes a word in a mathematical sense as located at the average of all of its pairwise relationships. We capture semantics through context, taken as all pairwise relationships. Our domain of application is that of filmscript analysis. The analysis of filmscripts, always important for cinema, is experiencing a major gain in importance in the context of television. Our objective in this work is to visualize the semantics of filmscript, and beyond filmscript any other partially structured, time-ordered, sequence of text segments. In particular we develop an innovative approach to plot characterization.

Keywords: Correspondence Analysis, semantics, context, text analysis, information display, tag cloud, visualization, filmscript

1 Introduction

1.1 Visual, Interactive User Interfaces for Supporting Information Space Navigation

Visualization is often an important way to elucidate semantic heterogeneity for the user. Visual user interfaces are discussed in Murtagh et al. (2003), with examples that include interactive, responsive information maps based on the Kohonen self-organizing feature map, and semantic network graphs. A study is presented in Murtagh et al. (2003) of such maps used for client-side visualization of concept hierarchies relating to an economics information space.

The use of “semantic road maps” to support information retrieval goes back to Doyle (1961). Motivation, following Murtagh et al. (2003), includes the following: (i) Visualization of the semantic structure and content of the data store allows the user to have some idea before submitting a query as to what type of outcome is possible. Hence visualization is used to summarize the contents of the database or data collection (i.e., information space). (ii) The user’s information requirements are often fuzzily and ambiguously defined at the outset of the information search. Hence visualization is used to help the user in his/her information navigation, by signaling the relationships between concepts. (iii) Visualization therefore helps the user before the user interacts with the information space, and during this interaction. It is a natural enough progression that the visualization can become the user interface.

Olston and Chi (2003) investigate how the visual user interface design can be influenced by the “semantic road map” that is being followed by the user.

Olston and Chi (2003) deal with browsing and/or search, based on unstructured text and hypertext. Instead, in this work, we deal with semi-structured textual data – filmscripts. Other than the immediate benefits relating to the early stages of movie or television program creation, there is great potential in our work for all areas that use semi-structured textual segments (e.g. in medical doctor-patient interactions, or for business or other interviews).

Since the mid-1990s we built visual interactive maps of bibliographic and database information at Strasbourg Astronomical Observatory, and some of these, with references, are available at Murtagh (2006). A comprehensive view of the Kohonen self-organizing feature map used can be found at websom.hut.fi (Kohonen et al. 2000).

A more recent development has been tag clouds. McKie (2007) discusses examples and provides an online system for creating of filmscript term “clouds”. He discusses similar tools (e.g., TagCrowd, www.tagcrowd.com; Zoomcloud, zoomclouds.egrupos.net). Similar tag clouds are commonly used to present information in large data repositories (e.g. flickr, www.flickr.org).

The motivation for such tools is to have (possibly interactive) annotated maps to support information navigation. Prominent terms are graphically presented and can be used to carry out a local search. In some cases, the location of terms is important, in particular in the case of the Kohonen map. The *automated* annotation of such information maps is not easy. Often the basis for display font size and sometimes even for location on the maps is simply frequency of term occurrence. The work presented in this article aims at taking more available information into account, leveraging interrelationships in textual content and thereby semantic content.

Our concern is not with overly large visualizations (see Kaser and Lemire, 2007, who use an optimal display layout algorithm) but rather with (i) structure in the form of sequence, and (ii) taking context and thereby semantics into account.

1.2 Filmscript

A filmscript, expressing a story, is the starting point for any possible production for cinema or TV. TV episodes in the same series may each be developed by different scriptwriters, and later by different producers and directors. The aim of any TV screenplay is to provide a unique but repeatable experience in which each episode shares certain structural and narrative traits with other episodes from the same series despite the fact they may have originated or been realised by different people or teams. There is a productive tension between the separate needs for uniqueness, – that each episode seems fresh and surprising, and belonging to its genre. An episode of any series needs to have a common feel, to offer the specific kinds of pleasure the audience associates with the series. We believe that these distinctive qualities of any individual script and the distinctive qualities of any genre could be subject to analysis through a tool which finds distinctive ways of representing the essential structural qualities of any script, and the series to which it belongs and thus enables the writer, the script

developer or producer to have a deeper understanding of the script and have objective criteria for the creative decisions they take. Moreover as the scripts are migrated to digital formats the tools offer many possibilities for prototyping from the information gathered. By analysis of multiple screenplays, TV episodes and genres the technology will allow the possibility of creating distinctive analytical patterns for the structure of genres, series, or episodes in the same way that comparative authorship can be assessed for individual writers.

There are major changes taking place in the television and film production process. This profound revolution is taking place in both the film and television production areas, and it has significant knock-on implications for new digital media areas such as the games sector, digital learning environments, and virtual communities or societies (e.g. Second Life). Convergence means that many media products move between media, a show such as the Simpsons or Lost is originated as a TV show and migrated to other media (film, game, online). Shows are created in one medium and are spun off to others – from game to film or TV. Even more symptomatic of changes at stake is that the young YouTube and FaceBook generation is well attuned to interactive and realtime entertainment.

1.3 Free Text, Semi-Structured Text and Filmscripts

Before one considers hyperlinks, text is naturally viewed as sequential. There may well be other forms of structure beyond hypertext and classical sequential text and we will touch on some in this section – hierarchical structure in text, for example. The sequential text that we target in this work is the filmscript that forms the basis and starting point of a film. There are various aspects of structure that we consider. Our interest lies therefore in semi-structured data visualization and analysis.

Beard et al. (2008) consider data that is both (i) spatially referenced, and (ii) temporally referenced, i.e. spatio-temporal data analysis. In our work we consider text segments that are characterized by (i) free text index terms; and (ii) the text segments are in sequence.

Let us review some quite general aspects of the handling of sequential segments of text. We then proceed to the particular case of filmscripts.

Chafe (1979) considers linear versus hierarchical (e.g., at sentence, paragraph, section, etc. levels) organization of text, in the context of studying narrative in its role as expressing past experience. Chafe used a 7-minute 16 mm color movie, with sound but no speech, and collected narrative reminiscences of it from human subjects. Chafe argues in favor of a “flow model”, i.e. a “flow of thought and the flow of language” which ignores all structure beyond the sequential order.

In our work, based on film or television movie scripts, we have and avail of given scene boundaries. For Chafe, and others basing their work on a similar principle such as Hearst (1994), this was not the case and instead they based their work on the human thinking that lay behind the recorded narrative. It

will be informative and very useful for us to avail instead of the structure that is provided by a film or television program script.

There are literally thousands of film scripts, including for television programs, for all genres, available and openly accessible on the web (e.g. IMSDb, Internet Movie Script Database). A film script is composed of a succession of scenes, each of which has a header (often in upper case, and indented) indicating internal or external, day or night, location and other metadata, together with transition (“cut to:”, “sound cue”) and beginning and end details. The variable length scene itself contains dialog between characters, and/or action description.

Supporting movie script analysis, both individually and comparatively, is of major importance in the distributed and collaborative writing process. Indeed machine learning algorithms have been directly applied to scripts themselves to predict later commercial success (Gladwell 2006).

Filmscripts are comprised of semi-structured data, incorporating free text and additional structure. They provide a very good “model” or exemplar for other application fields. Analysis, retrieval and use of scripts could provide a model for medical report handling, and scenario analysis in organization and management. The scripts may provide a more malleable basis for reshaping and restructuring content in order to support interactive training and learning environments, as well as the full gamut of interactive media in entertainment.

An in-depth analysis of content of the film Casablanca can be found in Murtagh et al. (2009, and see discussion in Merali, 2008). Television presents new and interesting challenges for a whole range of reasons. Television series may need to be repeated, they must have characterizing “texture” in each program’s content, and support is needed for the distributed writing and production teams. For all these reasons the television program scripts represent (technically) ideal and (application-wise) important exemplars for us. As we will see below, we make full use of whatever structure is available to us in such data.

1.4 Euclidean Embedding and Mapping of Context

In our use of free text, a mapping into a Euclidean space gives us the capability to determine distance in a visual and easily interpretable way. In Correspondence Analysis (Murtagh 2005), the texts we are using – e.g. the scenes – provide the rows, and the set of terms used comprise the column set. In the output, Euclidean, factor coordinate space, each text is located as a weighted average of the set of terms; and each term is located as a weighted average of the set of texts. (This simultaneous display is sometimes termed a biplot.) So texts and terms are both mapped into the same, output coordinate space. This can be of use in understanding a text through its closest terms, or vice versa. Hence it provides semantic context for both the set of texts and the set of terms.

A summary of properties of Correspondence Analysis is provided in the Appendix.

A commonly used starting point for studying a set of texts, e.g. filmscript scenes, is to characterize each text with numbers of terms appearing in the text,

for a set of terms.

The χ^2 distance is an appropriate distance for use with such data (Benzécri 1979; Murtagh 2005). The χ^2 distance is a weighted Euclidean distance. Consider texts i and i' crossed by words j . Let k_{ij} be the number of occurrences of word j in text i . Then, omitting a constant, the χ^2 distance between texts i and i' is given by $\sum_j 1/k_j (k_{ij}/k_i - k_{i'j}/k_{i'})^2$. The weighting term here is $1/k_j$. The weighted Euclidean distance is between the *profile* of text i , viz. k_{ij}/k_i for all j , and the analogous *profile* of text i' . Our discussion is to within a constant because we actually work on *frequencies* defined from the numbers of occurrences. Define $f_{ij} = k_{ij}/k$ where $k = \sum_i \sum_j k_{ij}$. Then the profile of scene i is the set of values f_{ij} for all j . Similarly the profile of word j is the set of values f_{ij} for all i . We say that $f_i = \sum_j f_{ij}$ is the *mass* of scene i ; and $f_j = \sum_i f_{ij}$ is the mass of word j .

Correspondence Analysis allows us to project the space of texts (we could equally well explore the terms in the *same* projected space) into a Euclidean space. In doing so, Correspondence Analysis transforms (by a linear transform determined from a singular value decomposition) each pairwise χ^2 distance into the corresponding pairwise Euclidean distance.

The Euclidean embedding is good for visualization, given that it is an intuitive one. It is good for static context, including processing of a historical or otherwise sequenced set of information items. All inter-relationships are at once taken into consideration. Furthermore all such inter-relationships together provide context, relativities, and hence meaning. In this sense therefore, Correspondence Analysis is an ideal platform for analysis of semantics (Murtagh, 2009).

1.5 Television Filmscripts Used

Production for television is often carried out by multiple teams. Notwithstanding this, there has to be a relatively very formulaic approach adopted to story and personalities. Our goal is to see where and how tag clouds can express well the content of filmscript data. How can tag clouds provide us with a summary of the story and perhaps be displayed in conjunction with other forms of the story such as the movie itself? We seek a better summary than just pure word counts. After all, there is increasingly fast moving convergence in the sector, with successful television series being ported to a games environment (this is the case for CSI); social network content being taken to a television environment (e.g. Sofia's Diary, www.bebo.com/sofiasdiary); and so on.

In this work we took three CSI (Crime Scene Investigation, Las Vegas – Grissom, Sara, Catherine et al.) television scripts from series 1:

- 1X01, Pilot, original air date on CBS Oct. 6, 2000. Written by Anthony E. Zuiker, directed by Danny Cannon.
- 1X02, Cool Change, original air date on CBS, Oct. 13, 2000. Written by Anthony E. Zuiker, directed by Michael Watkins.

- 1X03, Crate 'N Burial, original air date on CBS, Oct. 20, 2000. Written by Ann Donahue, directed by Danny Cannon.

Note the differences between writers and directors in most cases. We will refer to these scripts as CSI 101, CSI 102 and CSI 103. All film scripts were obtained from TWIZ TV (Free TV Scripts & Movie Screenplays Archives), <http://twiztv.com>

From series 3, we took another three scripts.

- 3X21, Forever, original air date on CBS, May 1, 2003. Written by Sara Goldfinger, directed by David Grossman.
- 3X22, Play With Fire, original air date on CBS, May 8, 2003. Written by Naren Shankar and Andrew Lipsitz, directed by Kenneth Fink.
- 3X23, Inside The Box, original air date on CBS, May 15, 2003. Written by Carol Mendelsohn and Anthony E. Zuiker, directed by Danny Cannon.

We will refer to these as CSI 321, CSI 322 and CSI 323.

An example of a very short scene, scene 25 from CSI 101, follows.

[INT. CSI - EVIDENCE ROOM -- NIGHT]

(WARRICK opens the evidence package and takes out the shoe.)

(He sits down and examines the shoe. After several dissolves, WARRICK opens the lip of the shoe and looks inside. He finds something.)

WARRICK BROWN: Well, I'll be damned.

(He tips the shoe over and a piece of toe nail falls out onto the table. He picks it up.)

WARRICK BROWN: Tripped over a rattle, my ass.

We see here scene metadata, characters, dialog, and action information, all of which we use. Frontpiece, preliminary or preceding storyline information, and credits were ignored by us. The number of scenes in each movie, and the number of unique, 2-characters or more, words used in the movie, are listed in Table 1. All punctuation was ignored. All upper case was converted to lower case. There was no pruning of stopwords (e.g., "the", "and", etc.). In CSI 101 the top words and their frequencies of occurrence were:

the 443; to 239; grissom 195; you 176; and 166; gil 114; catherine 105; of 89; he 85; nick 80; in 79; on 79; it 78; at 76; ted 66; sara 65; warrick 65; ...

The scenes constitute very natural segments of the filmscript. We determined frequencies of occurrence by scene of all words (subject only to what has been mentioned above regarding case, punctuation, word size, etc.).

Script	No. scenes	No. words
CSI 101	50	1679
CSI 102	37	1343
CSI 103	38	1413
CSI 321	39	1584
CSI 322	40	1579
CSI 323	49	1445

Table 1: Numbers of scenes in the plot, and numbers of unique (2-letter or more) words.

2 Capturing and Displaying Text Sequence Semantics through Spatial Embedding

2.1 Case Study: “Crime Scene Investigation” CSI 101 Pilot

As an exemplary data set, we take a transcript from the widely-aired CSI, “Crime Scene Investigation”, television series. The Pilot, 101, is used to begin with. In the Pilot, there are 50 scenes, with word counts ranging from 146 words to 676 words. In all there are 9934 words. There are 1679 unique words, greater than 1 letter in length, with lower case replacing upper case, and with punctuation ignored. We will use this 1679 unique word set.

The frequency of occurrence data crossing the 50 scenes and 1679 words is mapped, using Correspondence Analysis, into a space of intrinsic dimensionality 49: if n, m are respectively the numbers of rows or scenes, and columns or words, then the inherent dimensionality is $\min(n - 1, m - 1)$; the reason why 1 is subtracted from both is that the cloud of scenes and the cloud of words are both centered, giving a linear dependence. The origin is the average, expressing the hypothetical scene, or the hypothetical word, carrying no information.

In Figure 1, the scenes and words are located in the same embedding. The figure is interpreted in a visually natural, Euclidean, way, which is not the same as when we are presented with a frequency of occurrence data array. Defined on the basis of the frequency of occurrence array, we have the χ^2 distance between scenes and/or words. The output display in Figure 1 is a best planar view of a space endowed with the Euclidean metric. Both scenes and words have a “built-in” normalization (defined above when we discussed the χ^2 metric).

One important fact to keep in mind is that this is a best planar view of what is, in reality, a 49-dimensional space. The quality of the approximation involved in this is seen in the percentage inertia explained by these factors. Inertia explained by a factor r is the sum over all scenes of: mass times the projection squared on the axis. Quite typically for Correspondence Analysis, the extent of approximation is low in percentage terms. This is because less important factors or axes are “explained by”, or determined by, isolated, very particular, words

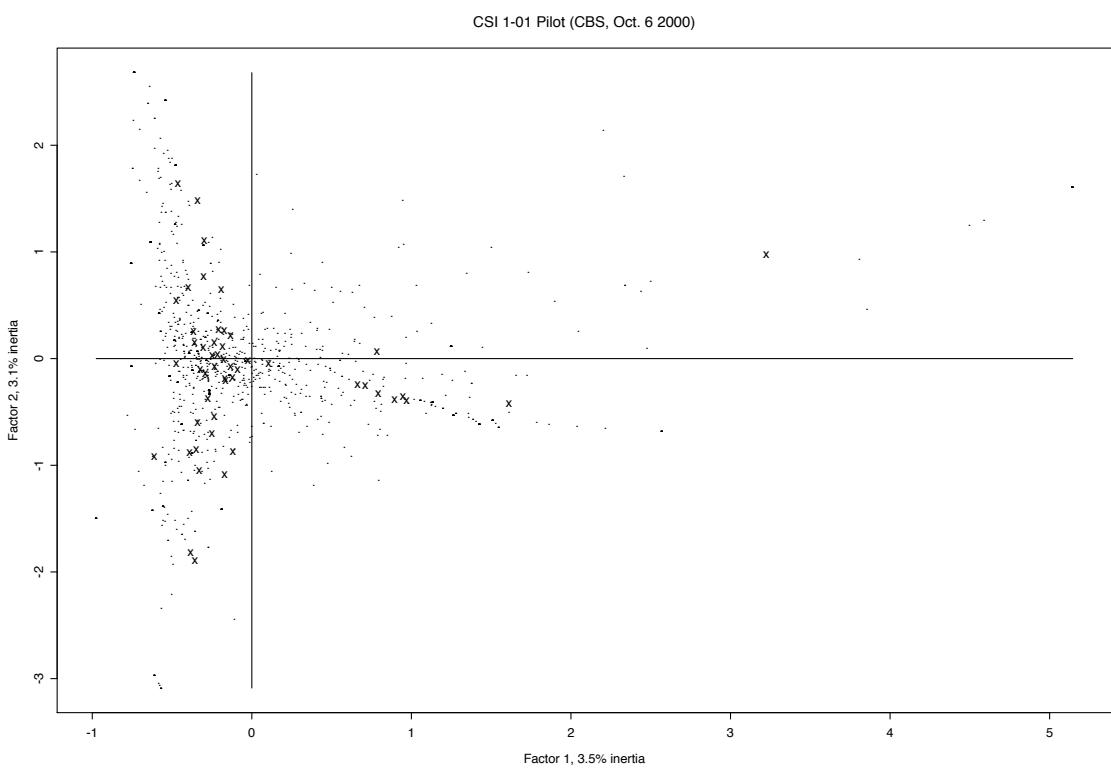


Figure 1: Correspondence Analysis principal factor plane of projections of 50 scenes (each represented with an x), and 1679 characterizing words (each represented with a dot). In this planar view of the two clouds, the cloud of scenes and the cloud of words, we eschew labels for clarity.

(which thereby also determine the information content of particular scenes).

The relationship between scenes and words in Figure 1 is ultimately given by the *dual space* relationships (Murtagh 2005): each scene is located at the center of gravity of all words; and each word is located at the center of gravity of all scenes. As noted above, this establishes a semantic property for the location of any scene – since the scene’s location is determined by the word set. Similarly each word’s location is determined by the scene set, hence establishing its semantics.

In practice, Figure 1 presents a very useful view of relationships in our scenes \times words data. We can look for polarities in the data; or anomalous scenes or words; or clusters or other configurations of scenes with reference to words or vice versa. But it is an approximation to the full dimensional reality. Therefore for some purposes, as in the case of the next section, we prefer to use the full dimensionality Euclidean representation furnished by the factor space. In such a case there is no low dimensional projection involved, and no loss of information.

2.2 Selecting the Most Pertinent Terms

Presenting a result with around 1700 terms (cf. Figure 1) does not lend itself to convenient display. We ask therefore what the most useful – perhaps the most discriminating terms – are. In Correspondence Analysis both texts and their characterizing terms are projected into the same factor space. So, from the factor coordinates, we can easily find the closest term(s) to a given text. We do this for each of the 50 scenes and find – in the full dimensionality factor space, and so with no approximation involved – the following for the 50 scenes in succession in program CSI 101:

“royce” “soon” “coughs” “tape” “building” “makes” “gasps” “shift” “sign” “forced” “rushes” “city” “feet” “body” “hotel” “ah” “trying” “or” “business” “shoes” “screaming” “swab” “gun” “were” “rattle” “print” “really” “brass” “remember” “judge” “any” “latex” “skin” “both” “herself” “believe” “hospital” “dress” “finger” “minute” “deep” “statement” “minutes” “shh” “match” “second” “watching” “enters” “ring” “full”

Among these terms, each individually characterizing a scene, in succession, we note the following. “Royce” is a personal name. Terms like “Ah” and “Shh” are present, and reflective of the scenes. We experimented with other alternatives, such as selecting the more important scenes – which, from our procedure, leads also to the more important words – on the basis of totalled high frequency of occurrence. This did not lead to a more attractive word set (e.g. nouns or verbs). Finally, we decided to limit ourselves to just one nearest neighbor word for each scene on the grounds of facilitating interpretation. However nothing restricts the consideration of, for example, 3 or 4 nearest neighbors.

In the following, in all cases, we use the first nearest neighbor word of each of the scenes. We also discuss the use of a restricted set of words in section 3.2.



CSI 1-01 Pilot

arms ass bathroom checks clippings crime deceased discoloration doll doorway
drives dusting examines fires **flashback** follicles forehead glances god gonna
grabs gurneys hallway homicide jar kit kneels lab latex leans **love** nail nods **okay**

opens picks prints **pulls** recorder robbery screams
shadowing shake sheets shuts sighs sir **sits** smiles spray stares **stops** straightens
suicide swabs toe toenail toilet trick underwear victim **walks** wallet yeah

Figure 2: A scriptcloud, showing 64 tags, based on frequent words retained following application of a stoplist. Produced by an earlier version of Contentcloud, www.contentclouds.com, using television program CSI 101.

3 Application to Semantics-Based Tag Cloud Visualization

3.1 Television Transcripts

Let us now turn our attention to tag clouds. To start with, we use other implementations of tag clouds as an alternative approach to visualization, for comparison purposes. Then we explore how we can use the Correspondence Analysis opening up the filmscript semantics for us in order to enhance the tag clouds. As we will show tag clouds can express additional information about our filmscript data while still maintaining the very clear display format.

The tag clouds of Figures 2 and 3 use frequency information related to word occurrence, and order words alphabetically. There is nothing in such tag clouds that takes into account the sequential order of the original text. The number of words is set by the user.

Our tag cloud in Figure 4 orders words by scene, where the words are the best characterizations of the scenes, in the sense described in section 2.2. Thus the most important structuring of the original text, viz. the sequence of scenes, is respected by this output display. The number of words is the same as the number of scenes.

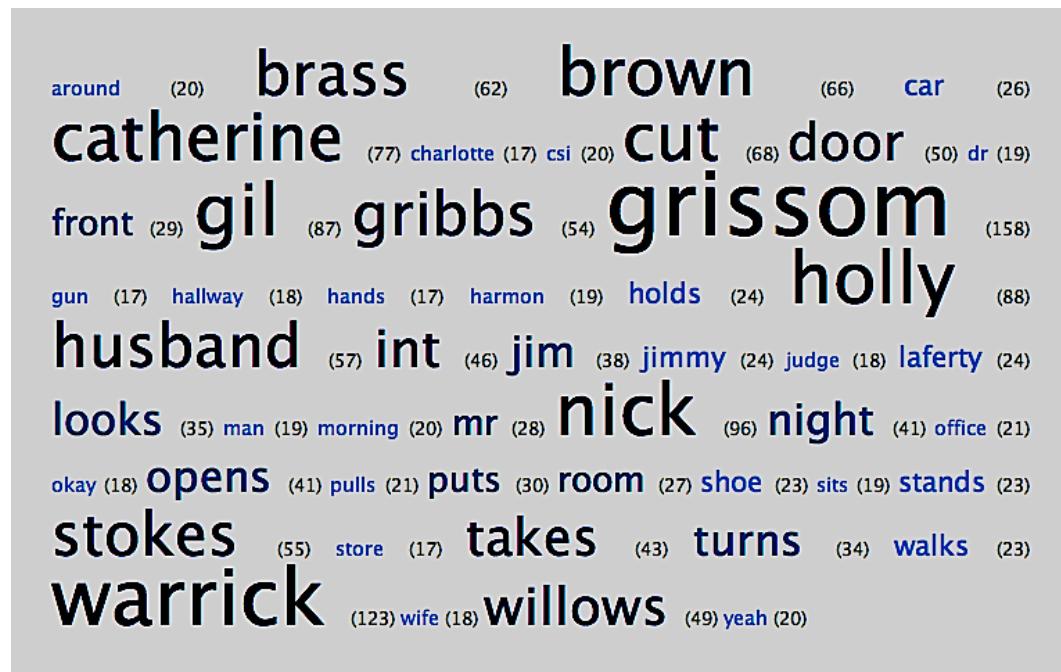


Figure 3: A tag cloud, showing 50 tags, with stemming applied and very frequent words ignored. Word frequencies are also shown. Produced by TagCrowd, www.tagcrowd.com, using television program CSI 101.

CSI 101 - Pilot

royce soon coughs tape building makes gasps shift sign forced rushes
city feet body hotel ah trying or business shoes screaming swab
gun were rattle print really brass remember judge any latex skin
both herself believe hospital dress finger minute deep statement
minutes shh match second watching enters ring full

CSI 102 - Cool Change

jackpot shakes night suicide word brass want bringing somebody
statement interview intercut stuff sidewalk money can minute ear
grabs sir stay coffee little present officer until leans eyes Watch doubt
enough fibers sees key question sits home

CSI 103 - Crate 'n Burial

listened lamp things under bedroom rag next. heads true screams
heat outside tracks minutes their move called accident clear words
clamping prints amazing person another moore saying sudden
unconscious lot cover tips handcuffs black laura cards watching slightly

Figure 4: Our tag cloud, where each word is a best characterization of a scene. The sequence of words corresponds to the sequences of scenes (so the number of words displayed equals the number of scenes). The word font size is proportional to semantic goodness of fit. (See text for discussion.) Shown are, from top to bottom, the tag clouds for three television program scripts, CSI 101, CSI 102 and CSI 103.

In Figure 4 we define word size based on goodness of fit to the scene. Since we have both words and scenes in the same Euclidean embedding, goodness of fit to a scene is measured simply by Euclidean distance between word and scene. To better scale the font sizes, and hence just for display purposes, we use a monotonic function of Euclidean distance, viz. log base 10 of the squared Euclidean distance.

Figure 4 also displays programs two and three of the first series of CSI. The first of these programs has 50 scenes and 1679 unique words; the second program has 37 scenes and 1343 words; and the third program has 38 scenes and 1413 words.

In the top panel of Figure 4 we note that most of the terms are roughly equally close to respective scenes (i.e. in the same band of closeness, since we allowed for six bands defining six font sizes) but not the term “building” in scene 5, nor “minutes” in scene 43. So, as good representatives of the corresponding scenes, these terms are in the nature of “handle with caution” matches. They are however, by definition, the semantically closest terms.

To summarize, we started with terms that most closely expressed and characterized the scenes, and indeed that discriminated, by a nearest neighbor definition, between the scenes. Representativity of a scene by a word was expressed by semantic proximity. All aspects of this are based on a Euclidean embedding, which also directly addresses the normalization of the original statistical (i.e. frequency of occurrence) data, both in relation to words and in relation to scenes. Furthermore all aspects of what we have done is automated and does not require any user setting of thresholds or manual selections.

To compare these results with other program (or episode) scripts, we can avail of other data available at TWIZ (2007). (Seasons 1 through 4 of CSI have each 23 programs; season 5 has 25 programs; seasons 6 and 7 have 24 programs; and season 8 has 17 programs.)

We use the following (Table 1):

- CSI 321, third series, 21st program, “Forever”, originally aired on CBS on 1 May 2003, 39 scenes. (In all, 1584 unique words were used.)
- CSI 322, third series, 22nd program, “Play with Fire”, originally aired on CBS on 8 May 2003, 40 scenes. (In all, 1579 words were used.)
- CSI 323, third series, 23rd and last program of the series, “Inside the Box”, originally aired on CBS on 15 May 2003, 49 scenes. (In all, 1445 words were used.)

Figure 5 shows the resulting tag clouds. Some remarks on this figure follow. “NV” (CSI 322) is part of a much used identifier of personages in a Nevada Correctional Facility in scene 22. Also in CSI 322, our punctuation handling has left “doesn” and stripped the remainder. We can of course base scene characterization on a selected set of words and not all words. In the section to follow, section 3.2, we do just that.

CSI 321 - Forever

seat food first nothing stuck ceiling id bindle usda kid pill
evidence pinpoints harper bodies carrying confer stitching sitting
daughter vic greater uterus blonde give table tax banks best area
car missing warrant pills going one smuggle doing rhone

CSI 322 - Play with Fire

enough scene put checks container car neck motel former match your bite
place steps head are never attorney about cases number nv groupie talk
puts open passes doesn heroin hot could green officer ready director
those lawyer everything eyes too

CSI 323 - Inside the Box

little guns glass open woman grabs weapon cut police past weren
leads muffled check snaps part tells table hood lockboxes used could
call casino home enough left truth office shows murdock braun
means sure wish then cuts address cronies robbery man tested
hands scarf murder care row vivian arm

Figure 5: Tag clouds for programs (episodes) CSI 321, CSI 322 and CSI 323 – the final ones – in CSI Series 3. See Figure 4 for other details.

In our tag clouds, as explored in Figures 4 and 5, input terms are chosen as the nearest neighbor word for each scene. In these visualizations we have the following simultaneous properties:

- Selected words, that most appropriately characterize a scene.
- The selected words accompanying the sequence of scenes, in scene order.
- Quality of the fit between characterizing word and scene.
- All pairwise relationships of words and scenes taken into consideration.

Properties such as these, seen in the display, can be used to distinguish one episode (program) from another.

One of the most appealing aspects of our approach is that all phases of the processing are automated, and there are no user-set parameters or other user intervention required.

We checked that the pertinent words found to characterize each scene were unique. This was always the case. If the same word were found to be closest to two scenes we could of course use any such multiple occurrences of words.

The motivation for our tag clouds is to go beyond frequency of occurrence statistics and instead visualize at once multiple facets of the filmscripts.

3.2 Tracking of Characters

In the sequence of scenes balance must be maintained as well as tempo-related contrast. In such areas as contrasts between interior and exterior scenes, day and night, and the presence or absence of principal and secondary characters, the filmscript must reflect vital aids and hints to the viewer, provoking both continuity of understanding by the viewer and discontinuity to trigger heightened attention.

We will look at the principal characters in the CSI scripts and television series programs: Gil Grissom, Warrick Brown, Nick Stokes, Catherine Willows, Jim Brass, and Sara Sidle. We will refer to them by the first or family name mainly used: Grissom, Warrick, Nick, Catherine, Brass and Sara.

The Correspondence Analysis allows us to easily seek the principal character who is closest to each scene. In the plot of scenes crossed by all words used in the filmscript, which naturally contains the character names, we look for proximity – in the full dimensional Euclidean, factor space, so no approximation is involved – between the character and the scenes. The relative importance is expressed by size in Figures 6 and 7. This relative importance is a scaled version of the log (base 10) of the squared Euclidean distance. (Using the distance or squared distance, and taking the log, there is clearly no effect on monotonicity of proximity. We take the log for improved visual appearance.)

We can see at a glance how Grissom pervades these films; whether characters reappear as the most crucial players implying intertwining of different actors; how the central roles of male and female characters alternate; and so on.

CSI101 - Pilot

Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Nick Grissom Brass Catherine Brass
Warrick Grissom Nick Nick Grissom Warrick Grissom Warrick Grissom Nick Catherine Grissom
Warrick Grissom Grissom Brass Nick Warrick Grissom Grissom Nick Nick Grissom Grissom
Catherine Catherine Warrick Warrick Warrick Grissom Catherine Catherine Grissom Warrick
Warrick Grissom Nick Warrick

CSI102 - Cool Change

Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Brass Grissom Catherine Grissom Nick Grissom
Warrick Nick Grissom Warrick Sara Grissom Catherine Catherine Grissom Sara Sara Catherine
Grissom Catherine Warrick Catherine Catherine Nick Grissom Catherine Nick Grissom Grissom
Grissom Warrick Grissom

CSI103 - Crate 'n Burial

Grissom Sara Brass Nick Sara Sara Catherine Brass Grissom Catherine Sara Brass
Grissom Brass Grissom Brass Catherine Catherine Catherine Sara Grissom Sara Brass
Warrick Grissom Catherine Catherine Grissom Grissom Nick Catherine
Catherine Warrick Grissom Catherine Warrick Warrick

Figure 6: In CSI 101, CSI 102 and CSI 103, there were respectively 50, 37 and 38 scenes. We show the most important character, among the six principal characters, for each scene in succession. The size used in the display, expressing relative importance for the scene, is defined via proximity between scene and character name, as explained in the text.

We could of course collect statistics of appearance, and present such results as histograms or pie charts, or a time series. However the motivation for our tag clouds is to have a range of properties of the filmscript presented simultaneously.

4 Conclusions

Our objective in this work has been to visualize the semantics of filmscript, in a novel way, by relying on quite a widely used approach to visualization, namely tagclouds. We have related this visualization to a comprehensive framework which allows us to go further when and where needed, such as to find further neighborhood relationships between terms. Filmscript, our input data, offers us a useful testbed to prototype our new algorithms. Analysis and interpretation of filmscript has direct and, in fact, far-reaching implications for the evolving production process for filmscript, and the changing world of film, television, games, and all online media. Beyond filmscript, our work has possible relevance for any other partially structured, time-ordered, sequence of text segments.

CSI321 - Forever

Catherine Catherine Brass Catherine Nick Catherine Sara Nick Catherine Sara Warrick Nick Grissom Nick Warrick Catherine Brass Sara Warrick Sara Catherine Grissom Grissom Sara Sara Grissom Catherine Brass Sara Sara Sara Sara Sara Warrick Catherine Catherine Brass Grissom

CSI322 - Play with Fire

Grissom Grissom Nick Grissom Warrick Sara Grissom Brass Grissom Grissom Brass Sara Grissom Grissom Sara Grissom Grissom Brass Nick Catherine Nick Nick Nick Nick Warrick Nick Sara Nick Grissom Grissom Grissom Catherine Brass Grissom Grissom Nick Grissom Brass Catherine Sara

CSI323 - Inside the Box

Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Catherine Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Brass Grissom Catherine Brass Sara Nick Catherine Grissom Nick Sara Warrick Grissom Catherine Catherine Catherine Warrick Grissom Nick Nick Catherine Catherine Catherine Catherine Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Brass Grissom Brass Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Grissom Catherine Brass Catherine Grissom

Figure 7: In CSI 321, CSI 322 and CSI 323, there were respectively 39, 40 and 49 scenes. We show the most important character, among the six principal characters, for each scene in succession. The size used in the display, expressing relative importance for the scene, is defined as explained in the text.

With reference to Chafe (1979) we used the sequence of text segments representing scenes in the filmscript. Sequence and semantic proximity are presented simultaneously in our tag cloud display.

Computationally, all processing is of linear time in the scenes, or their associated words. The eigen-reduction at the core of the Correspondence Analysis has a cubic computation time in either the scene set or the word set: of course we choose to carry out this computationally heavy processing on the smaller of these two sets, viz. the set of scenes. Once this is done we easily pass between the dual spaces of scenes and words (see Appendix).

Our approach is automated, without recourse to user parameters, or user choice of chained tasks. A framework enveloping input data and delivered (potentially interactive and responsive) display is provided.

Our comparisons in this work have included (i) basic low dimensional mapping and (ii) two other tag cloud visualizations. We build on these approaches in order to have a better visualization. The broad context for our work is that of support for film production for television. As noted, this is an area of great commercial importance, not least in view of the convergence between Internet, television, cinema, games, print media, mobile communications and other display devices, and so on.

As noted too, we use filmscripts which are the points of departure for a later film, or for the film's accompanying metadata. The original semantics of the television programs are used with further processing provided through the Correspondence Analysis mapping.

We find our approach to be particularly useful when words are selected, such as when our focus is on the dramatic characters (personalities).

Appendix: Correspondence Analysis

Analysis Chain

Correspondence Analysis provides what could be characterized as a data analysis platform providing access to the semantics of information expressed by the data. The way it does this is by viewing each observation or row vector as the average of all attributes that are related to it; and by viewing each attribute or column vector as the average of all observations that are related to it.

The analysis chain is as follows:

1. The starting point is a matrix that cross-tabulates the dependencies, e.g. frequencies of joint occurrence, of an observations crossed by attributes matrix.
2. By endowing the cross-tabulation matrix with the χ^2 metric on both observation set (rows) and attribute set (columns), we can map observations and attributes into the same space, endowed with the Euclidean metric.
3. Interpretation is through projections of observations, attributes or clusters onto factors. The factors are ordered by decreasing importance.

There are various aspects of Correspondence Analysis which follow on from this, such as Multiple Correspondence Analysis, different ways that one can encode input data, inducing of a hierarchical clustering from the (Euclidean) factor space, and mutual description of clusters in terms of factors and vice versa. See Murtagh (2005) and references therein for further details.

We will use a very succinct and powerful tensor notation in the following, introduced by Benzécri (1979). At key points we will indicate the equivalent vector and matrix expressions.

Correspondence Analysis: Mapping χ^2 Distances into Euclidean Distances

The given contingency table (or numbers of occurrence) data is denoted $k_{IJ} = \{k_{IJ}(i,j) = k(i,j); i \in I, j \in J\}$. I is the set of observation indexes, and J is the set of attribute indexes. We have $k(i) = \sum_{j \in J} k(i,j)$. Analogously $k(j)$ is defined, and $k = \sum_{i \in I, j \in J} k(i,j)$. Next, $f_{IJ} = \{f_{ij} = k(i,j)/k; i \in I, j \in J\} \subset \mathbb{R}_{I \times J}$, similarly f_I is defined as $\{f_i = k(i)/k; i \in I, j \in J\} \subset \mathbb{R}_I$, and f_J analogously. What we have described here is taking numbers of occurrences into relative frequencies.

The conditional distribution of f_J knowing $i \in I$, also termed the j th profile with coordinates indexed by the elements of I , is:

$$f_J^i = \{f_j^i = f_{ij}/f_i = (k_{ij}/k)/(k_i/k); f_i > 0; j \in J\}$$

and likewise for f_I^j .

Input: Cloud of Points Endowed with the Chi Squared Metric

The cloud of points consists of the couples: (multidimensional) profile coordinate and (scalar) mass. We have $N_J(I) = \{(f_J^i, f_i); i \in I\} \subset \mathbb{R}_J$, and again similarly for $N_I(J)$. Included in this expression is the fact that the cloud of observations, $N_J(I)$, is a subset of the real space of dimensionality $|J|$ where $|\cdot|$ denotes cardinality of the attribute set indexed by J .

The overall inertia is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} M^2(N_J(I)) &= M^2(N_I(J)) = \|f_{IJ} - f_I f_J\|_{f_I f_J}^2 \\ &= \sum_{i \in I, j \in J} (f_{ij} - f_i f_j)^2 / f_i f_j \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The term $\|f_{IJ} - f_I f_J\|_{f_I f_J}^2$ is the χ^2 metric between the probability distribution f_{IJ} and the product of marginal distributions $f_I f_J$, with as center of the metric the product $f_I f_J$. Decomposing the moment of inertia of the cloud $N_J(I)$ – or of $N_I(J)$ since both analyses are inherently related – furnishes the principal axes of inertia, defined from a singular value decomposition.

Output: Cloud of Points Endowed with the Euclidean Metric in Factor Space

The χ^2 distance with center f_J between observations i and i' is written as follows in two different notations:

$$d(i, i') = \|f_J^i - f_J^{i'}\|_{f_J}^2 = \sum_j \frac{1}{f_j} \left(\frac{f_{ij}}{f_i} - \frac{f_{i'j}}{f_{i'}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

In the factor space this pairwise distance is identical. The coordinate system and the metric change. For factors indexed by α and for total dimensionality N ($N = \min \{|I| - 1, |J| - 1\}$; the subtraction of 1 is since the χ^2 distance is centered and hence there is a linear dependency which reduces the inherent dimensionality by 1) we have the projection of observation i on the α th factor, F_α , given by $F_\alpha(i)$:

$$d(i, i') = \sum_{\alpha=1..N} (F_\alpha(i) - F_\alpha(i'))^2 \quad (3)$$

In Correspondence Analysis the factors are ordered by decreasing moments of inertia. The factors are closely related, mathematically, in the decomposition of the overall cloud, $N_J(I)$ and $N_I(J)$, inertias. The eigenvalues associated with the factors, identically in the space of observations indexed by set I , and in the space of attributes indexed by set J , are given by the eigenvalues associated with the decomposition of the inertia. The decomposition of the inertia is a principal axis decomposition, which is arrived at through a singular value decomposition.

Dual Spaces and Transition Formulas

The projection of observation i on the α th factor is $F_\alpha(i)$. Likewise, the projection of attribute j on the α th factor in its associated space is $G_\alpha(j)$. The following relationship holds.

$$\begin{aligned} F_\alpha(i) &= \lambda_\alpha^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{j \in J} f_j^i G_\alpha(j) \text{ for } \alpha = 1, 2, \dots, N; i \in I \\ G_\alpha(j) &= \lambda_\alpha^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{i \in I} f_i^j F_\alpha(i) \text{ for } \alpha = 1, 2, \dots, N; j \in J \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Relation (4) gives us the *transition formulas*: The coordinate of element $i \in I$ is the barycenter of the coordinates of the elements $j \in J$, with associated masses of value given by the coordinates of f_j^i of the profile f_J^i . This is all to within the $\lambda_\alpha^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ constant.

In the output display, the barycentric principle comes into play: this allows us to simultaneously view and interpret observations and attributes.

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